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ABSTRACT

This paper analyzes interrelationships between educational administration and educational development (defined as guided educational change) in Sweden. First, characteristics of the Swedish educational system and its management are described. The paper notes a growing trend to connect educational activities to community activities. Thus, school administration is increasingly becoming the administration of school-community relations. This development was inspired by socioeconomic progressivism and pelagogic progressivism. This progressivism requires a new kind of administration in which a changing, rather than a static, school is being administered. Both local and central administrators are often forced to interpret the aims of educational policy, choose a position when aims conflict, and set priorities between different aims. Thus, educational administration in itself becomes a force for educational development. Management of education has also changed through new laws on employment protection and joint regulation of working conditions. The employment protection law is sometimes difficult to apply to research and development if high quality and competence are to be maintained. The problem is balancing the public interest (determined politically) and the interests of special groups (determined through negotiations). If these interests cannot be balanced, both educational administration and educational research and development may be affected. (Author/JM)

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EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Sixten Marklund

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Institute of International Education

University of Stockholm, Sweden

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Sixten Marklund
Institute of International Education
University of Stockholm

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PREFACE

A previous version of this report was written in 1976 as a Swedish contribution to an international comparative project on educational administration in fifteen countries at the Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada. According to the guidelines given, this project aimed at providing students, theorists and administrators with "an international perspective on the organization and management of national and sub-national systems of education". The project was completed and reported in a volume "Educational Administration. A Comparative View " by David Friesen, Avigador Farine and J.Collins Meek (1979). The Swedish contribution is included in this volume under the headline "Educational Administration in Sweden".

The increasing interest for administration and management of education is mostly based on the close interrelationship of these activities and educational development. Additional reasons for this interest are found in new laws and regulations about security of employment for teachers and researchers and about co-determination in administrative issues by these and other kinds of employees in education.

This new and extended version of the previous Swedish report also includes a brief analysis and discussion of these laws and rules as conditions for educational development.

October, 1979

Sixten Marklund

1 INTRODUCTION

Educational administration is a subject which has met with increased interest during recent years. In a time of frequent changes in school and education this is not surprising. Changes in education are sometimes unplanned and unforeseen, even accidental. It is not this kind of educational change we are interested in here but rather changes towards established educational goals, changes following a defined educational policy. This kind of educational change is usually designated as educational development. And this development needs an administration, which is what we want to discuss here.

There are many kinds of professional training today where "administration" is treated as a subject per se. Courses in administration are given as parts of the pre-service and in-service training of teachers and other school personnel. In some universities educational administration is even ascribed the status of a research discipline.

The term administration has many interpretations. One of them says that administration stands for management of an unchangeable enterprise or activity, thus meaning only routine or procedure. Another interpretation puts administration on the same footing as bureaucracy, seen positively as "good order" and negatively as "rigidity and formality".

None of these interpretations will be forthcoming here. Seen as a planned and intentional activity educational administration comes closer to execution of educational policy. In a universal form, however, administration is an integral element of settled activities in general. Research as well as education needs administration. And administration is not just a planning, leading and co-ordination "from above", it is also a corresponding structurization "from within". The teachers' planning, execution and following up of his teaching is

administration as well as it is creation and interpretation. The researcher's pursuit for knowledge has also an administrative dimension.

Seen this way administration never becomes an entity by itself. Administration is always administration of something and for a certain purpose. It is in this way educational administration and educational development become so closely interrelated. Educational administration has both form and content, both structure and function. Those who want to develop education must learn about educational administration. Educational researchers often view educational administration as something burdensome and troublesome, something he would rather not concern himself with. Yet the simple truth is that he must know about this if he wants to develop education. It is important for him to know not only if his parameters are true or false, good or bad, relevant or irrelevant, but also if they are administratively possible or impossible, fruitful or unfruitful. Development must be administrated, and administration must be developed. In certain respects these two endeavours coincide.

In the following sections of this paper we will discuss the interrelationships of administration and development with the author's home country Sweden used as a case-study, which - in spite of the national characteristics - hopefully, will be of a certain general interest.

2 SOME BASIC FACTS ABOUT EDUCATION IN SWEDEN

2.1 Some National Characteristics

Sweden has a population of 8.2 million. In this respect Sweden belongs to the small countries in western Europe. With an area of 450.000 square kilometers Sweden is the third biggest of these countries (after France and Spain and before the United Kingdom, Germany and Italy). This gives Sweden only 19 inhabitants per square kilometer. Sparely populated forest and mountain regions in the north and west stand in contrast to densely populated areas, above all in the regions of the three biggest cities, Stockholm, Gothenburg and Malmö.

Culturally and socially the population has been fairly homogeneous. With the exception of small minorities, Lapps and Finns in the north, there has been only one language, Swedish, spoken all over the country. In religion homogeneity has been significant, as Sweden has had a Lutheran State Church for more than 400 years. All Swedes are "born into" this church and remain there, except for some individuals or smaller groups who request to leave it.

Heavy immigration during the last fifteen years, however, has now added nearly one million people of different linguistic and cultural features to the Swedish population. About one half of the immigrants have come from the neighbour countries, mainly from Finland but also from Denmark. The other half has come predominantly from southern Europe (Italy, Yugoslavia, Greece, Turkey, Spain etc). This immigration has significantly changed the former Swedish cultural homogeneity.

In the past hundred years Sweden has been transformed from a typically agrarian country to a highly industrialised state, in which service occupations are now the most rapidly expanding sector. The same period has seen a drift of population from the rural areas to the towns, whose proportion of the population has risen from 20 to 80 per cent during the last century.

Economically Sweden has developed remarkably during the period after World War II. In measures like gross national product per capita, private and public consumption Sweden now belongs to the top countries of the world. Politically the country has been uniquely stable. The Social Democratic Party was in power practically without interruption between 1932 and 1976, for shorter parts of this period together with other parties in coalitions. Since 1976 Sweden has had governments with the conservative, the liberal and the center parties. In the last parliamentary election in September 1979, the percentage distribution of votes was as follows:

Conservative Party	20.3%
Liberal Party	10.6%
Center Party	18.1%
Social Democratic Party	43.2%
Communist Party	5.6%
Others	2.2%

In some of the big social and educational reform movements after the second world war there has been a considerable consensus between the political parties.

2.2 Public and Private Education

A typical feature of the Swedish school system is the very inconspicuous part played by the private schools. The Education Act of 1962 does not put any obstacles in the way of private persons or groups wishing to provide for their own education of that of their children, but it does oblige municipal authorities to ensure

that all children of school age can receive a compulsory nine-year education. Little use is made of the liberty provided for the establishment of private schools and private instruction, even though schools of this kind normally receive state grants on the same terms as the public school system.

There are private day nurseries and nursery schools for children between the ages of six months and six years. Some of these are run by certain religious and ethnic groups. Most such schools are for children between the ages of four and six years. Taking the country as a whole though, these private schools are few in number; less than two per cent of the country's pre-school children are estimated to attend them. Insofar as these schools receive state and municipal grants, they are also under a measure of central inspection, exercized, however, by the National Board of Health and Welfare and not by the National Board of Education (NBE). Most pre-school institutions are run by municipal authorities and are therefore publicly owned.

Practically all children between the ages of seven and sixteen attend the "basic school" (in Swedish grundskola), which is a nine-year municipal elementary and lower secondary school. The private school population is estimated at less than one per cent.

Private schools and schools run by enterprises are somewhat more frequent in the sphere of higher secondary education (ages 16 - 19), but in Sweden as a whole, less than two per cent of students in this category are estimated to attend such schools. Sweden has only about ten purely private schools, e.g. boarding schools for children whose parents mostly are living abroad. Private enterprise sponsors a certain number of courses, of varying duration, at secondary school level. The boundary between employment and training for the persons taking part in such courses is a flexible one.

Summing up, there are very few private schools in Sweden and about 98 per cent of all students are publicly educated. It seems fair to say, moreover, that there are no differences of status or standard between private and public education.

Tertiary education is entirely publicly owned. Following a resolution passed by the Riksdag (= the Swedish Parliament) in 1975, no formal distinction is made between university and other forms of tertiary education. There are State universities or colleges (Sw. högskola) in nineteen places in Sweden. These establishments include the former six independent State universities. Several other places have municipally sponsored tertiary education facilities.

Sweden has 110 folk high schools for adult students. About half of these folk high schools are private and run by religious, ideological and trade union organizations. The others are owned or supported by one or more municipalities.

Another typically Swedish and Scandinavian phenomenon is that of voluntary popular education. This mostly takes the form of evening "study circles" and is organized by independent adult education associations, of which the Workers´Educational Association (ABF) is the largest. Nearly two million Swedes nowadays participate annually in this type of evening courses, which is a remarkable figure in a population of 8.2 million.

Widespread secondary education facilities are provided for adults both during the day and in the form of evening classes. Adult education of this kind is a municipal responsibility but is financed with the aid of State grants.

Labour market training is entirely sponsored by the State.

2.3 State and Municipal Education

We will confine our attention here to the public school system, i.e. education for children and young persons aged between 7 and 19 years, about 98 per cent of which is publicly organized. With a few minor exceptions, this type of education is a municipal responsibility.

Thirty years ago Sweden had about 2 500 self-governing municipalities. A succession of boundary reforms has resulted in the amalgamation of these municipalities to form larger units of local self-government, so that today there are 278 municipalities in Sweden. The most important reason for the municipal boundary reforms was a desire to streamline the administration of social welfare and schooling. Certain types of education are sponsored by more than one municipality, sometimes by all the municipalities constituting a county council area.

The following table illustrates sponsorship in the public school system. Figures in parenthesis refer to student ages.

	Municipality/ -ities	State
Pre-school (0-6 years)	1	
Compulsory school (7-16 years)	1	
Upper-secondary school (16-19 years)	1	
Special schools for certain categories of handicapped and disabled	1	1
Adult education:		
Municipal adult education	1	
Certain folk high schools	1	
Labour market training		1
Universities and colleges ("Högskola")	1	1

Even schools run by one or more municipalities usually come under State inspection or supervision on account of their receiving State grants towards their activities.

2.4 Student Enrolment

Pre-school education (1/2-6 years) has not yet been fully expanded. An Act passed by the Swedish Parliament (Riksdag) in 1974 makes it the duty of all municipalities in Sweden to provide pre-school places for all six-year-olds. Attendance on the other hand is voluntary. The expansion programme is expected to be completed

within the near future. There are still not enough places for younger children: as things now stand, places can so far be provided for only half of all children between the ages of six months and five years.

Compulsory school (7-16 years) is a comprehensive school which children attend for nine years. The primary level comprises grades 1-6 and the secondary level grades 7-9. Each year cohort has about 110 000 children, so that the total elementary school population is in the region of one million.

Within the compulsory school framework, special instruction is provided for students with specific reading disabilities, learning disabilities, emotional disturbances and certain physical disabilities. This special instruction can be provided in separate special classes taken by specially trained teachers and with a smaller number of students than usual (12-15), or it can take the form of special clinic instruction provided by specially trained teachers. In the latter case the pupil belongs to a normal class but leaves it for occasional periods to attend the clinic. About 4 per cent of elementary school pupils are in special classes. Between 15 and 20 per cent receive individual special instruction in clinics for longer or shorter periods.

Upper secondary school (16-19 years) was established by a Riksdag resolution in 1970 for the amalgamation of upper-secondary academic, general, technical and vocational schools to form a single integrated school. At present this school comprises 22 different lines or courses of study and a large number of specialized courses. Studies last from 2 to 4 years.

Upper-secondary schooling has expanded a great deal in recent years. At the beginning of the 1960s, the different study routes which later were amalgamated into the integrated upper-secondary school could accommodate about 30 per cent of each generation of 16-year-olds. Today practically everybody completing their compulsory basic schooling can go on to upper-secondary school, and about 90 per cent of upper-secondary places are in fact subscribed. Only about 70 per cent out of these 90 per cent of upper-secondary students come straight from elementary

school , however. The remaining 20 per cent of places are occupied by persons returning to school after a lapse of one or more years.

The total upper-secondary school population is about 240 000. Upper-secondary schools are run by the municipalities. The country is divided into 130 upper-secondary school regions. Altogether there are some 260 upper-secondary schools.

The number of students in municipal adult education has been rapidly expanding in recent years. They are now about 275 000, thus more than the number of students in upper-secondary schools. Labour market training, which is entirely State sponsored, varies in scope and scale according to the employment situation. In recent years the number of trainees has been a fairly constant 100 000.

Folk high schools are attended by some 12 000 full-time adult students, with a further 150 000 or so attending courses of limited duration.

Voluntary popular education attracts no less than 2,5 million members of short study circles every year. The total number of participants is lower, however, as some of them join more than one study circle.

Universities and other forms of tertiary education (högskola) now attract roughly one-third of each generation. This level includes the training of pre-school teachers, class teachers and subject teachers (academic, technical, vocational, music, art), which is now mostly provided in a uniform organization of schools of education.

3 GOVERNANCE AND POLICY

3.1 School Reforms after 1950

Until 1950, public schooling in Sweden comprised two separate school systems, one of them governed by the local municipalities and the other by the state. The municipalities were responsible for primarily schools (Sw. folkskola), which normally comprised seven compulsory years of schooling. Vocational schools, insofar as they existed, were also run by the municipalities, for primary school-leavers. Continuation schools and some new lower secondary schools were also organized by the municipalities to meet a rising need for continuing education. Secondary school was as a rule run by the state. Secondary schooling ended with matriculation, which was a qualifying examination for university entrance. Students were selected between the ages of 10 and 12 for admission to state secondary schools and to the lower secondary schools mentioned previously. Until 1950 the students thus selected constituted a minority of each generation.

This system of parallel schools from the age of 10 years onwards gradually came to be regarded by policy makers as undemocratic. In 1950, therefore, the Riksdag resolved in favour of the replacement of the parallel system with a comprehensive system in which primary and secondary education were to be co-ordinated and placed under municipal sponsorship.

Between 1950 and 1962, nationwide experimental activities were conducted in order to find out how to introduce a new comprehensive system and to compare this new system with the existing parallel system. In 1962 the Riksdag resolved that the comprehensive system was to be introduced throughout the country between 1962 and 1972. This was accomplished in grades 1-9 (ages 7-15 years). At the same time, also as a result of a Riksdag resolution, a new upper secondary school was introduced for students aged between 16 and 19. This reform proceeded by several stages and involved the integration of academic and technical-vocational education in a single municipal school, the integrated upper secondary school.

A great many reforms have been passed since 1950, and the process continues today. Briefly, the changes so far effected have implied the following.

1. Schooling has been extended and is now compulsory for all children and young persons up to the age of 16.

2. Compulsory school students are not divided into lines and classes according to ability and interests. All classes are heterogeneously grouped as concerns abilities and interests. Students in the three senior grades have a free choice of optional subjects during 15-20 per cent of their time-table and their choices do not affect the formal qualifications for continued studies in upper-secondary school.

3. Upper-secondary school comprises 22 different lines of study together with a number of specialized courses. Lines of study can take from two to four years. Most of them are vocational. There are upper-secondary school places available for all students who complete their compulsory schooling. Nearly 90 per cent of each generation continue studying up to the age of 18.

4. A minimum of two years' secondary schooling give so-called "general qualification" to the student for admission to university and other types of tertiary education. This applies to vocational lines of secondary school just as well as to traditional pre-university streams, on condition that secondary studies have included Swedish and English. In certain fields of higher studies with a restricted enrolement, however, it is necessary also with varying kinds of so-called "special qualifications".

5. School governance and administration come under the 1962 Education Act. The municipalities are (singly or jointly) responsible for the management of public basic schools and upper-secondary schools. Every municipality has a politically elected municipal school authority, one or more chief education officers and a number of headmasters. The State is responsible for master planning at central and regional level and for the inspection and appointment of permanent teachers: these responsibilities are discharged through the National Board of Education (NBE, see 5.2.2) and 24 County School Boards.

3.2 The Aims of the Public School System

All of the school reforms described in points 1-5 of the preceding section can be seen as concretizations of certain over-riding aims defined by the Riksdag and Government. These aims can be divided into four groups.

1. School is to promote the general personal development of the student as an individual and community member, in accordance with his individual aptitudes and interests.

2. School is to help promote the development of society by promoting productivity, efficiency and the participation of the individual in the service of the community.

3. In promoting individual and communal development as per 1 and 2 above, school is to aim at equality. Every individual is to be given fair and equal opportunities, irrespective of social, economic and geographic circumstances.

4. School is to pass on to new generations what is commonly termed the cultural heritage, i.e. traditions and values which are thought to merit perpetuation.

There is nothing unique about the formulation of these four types of educational objective. Most countries have similar legislation, rules and statements of policy. The importance lies in the realization of these aims through education policy, school administration and instruction. It is very important, for instance, to find solutions to the conflicts of aims which are bound to arise. These conflicts are of two kinds. Firstly, different aims may be intrinsically irreconcilable. The goal of equality, for instance, may come into conflict with the goal of free individual development, the goal concerning the perpetuation of traditions may conflict with the goal of greater communal benefit, and so on. Secondly, different interpretations may be put on the general aims by different school officers. The school administration, the school manager (headmaster or director of studies), the teacher, the textbook writer and the test designer all contribute interpretations of aims from their different vantage points, and their interpretations may differ.

Fortunately, it is not always a source of problems for different interpreters to take different views of goals and to act differently. On the contrary, this is often a precondition of stimulating and developing debate. There are cases, however, where differing approaches can lead to conflicts and inefficiency, to the detriment of the individual student. This has to be avoided, and it is therefore essential for an administration and forms of goal interpretation to be established in a manner which is conducive to communication and information between the parties involved.

The reform of the Swedish school system since 1950, of which it has not been possible to give more than a superficial description here, has been of a thoroughgoing nature. Hardly anything remains of the previous school structure. The aim of providing education with an integral mechanism of selfrenewal, partly by the combination of reforms with extensive research and development activities and with systematic inservice teacher training, has made it necessary for school administration to be viewed in a new light, as part of the process of continuous school reform.

3.3 Centralization - Decentralization

One thing is obvious from developments since 1950: the reforms would not have been possible without fairly firm central direction. Central direction, however, should not be confused with authoritarian direction. The impulses behind the changes were essentially political and therefore firmly rooted in the political parties (not only the Social Democratic Party), in trade unions and employers' associations, in the co-operative movement, in the popular education movement and in other movements at grassroots level. But a central education policy needed to be defined by the Government and Riksdag. School reforms and development questions, including also scientific reports on the subject, have made up the basis for debates by the Riksdag every year since 1950. Local education and development policy was also needed, however, to counterbalance the central policy and to give a communication between promotors of the central policy and executors at the local level of such a policy.

Another equally clear lesson of recent years seems to be that, in certain structural respects, the reform stage has now been passed.

It seems unlikely that anybody today would favour a return to the previous system of a socially and prestige-wise segregated school system. Thus far the battle for the comprehensive system is over and won. On the other hand there is a very pressing need today for measures to encourage internal reforms, pedagogical reforms and reforms at local level. The reform of the school system will remain incomplete so long as it lacks this continuation of the process which began with the outward structure. This realization in the internal activities of schools of the above specified overriding aims of individual and social development, equality and the preservation of the cultural heritage will probably be unattainable without a substantial decentralization of responsibility and decision making and a free assessment at local level of the best way in which state grants and other resources can be used.

A number of factors operating inside and outside the school have brought demands for sweeping changes in the schoolwork and in the relations between students and staff. Proposals for such changes have been put forward by a commission set up to study "The School's Inner Work" (SIA). These proposals were well received by the submission bodies and lead to decisions by the Riksdag in May 1976. with provision to give the schools greater freedom to dispose of available resources, to increase and improve programmes of in-service training for staff, to give school principals a brand new type of professional education etc. The laws enacted by the Riksdag now gives the local educational authorities increased possibilities to use state grants the way they decide themselves in that 25 percent of state grants are not ear-marked in advance by state authorities. Spending this "free quarter" forces a local planning and a local evaluation on a broad scale, which gives school administration far greater responsibilities and possibilities for educational development than before.

Another government commission, "The School, the State and the Municipalities" (SSK) has been looking into the whole question of dividing responsibilities between central government and local authorities where the school is concerned. According to this commission, however, it is necessary to decentralize decision-making without impairing the criteria for external uniformity and for equivalent standards of schooling in different parts of the country. SSK's

work is so far continued by a new government commission on the structure and role of school administration on central and regional level.

4 FINANCE OF EDUCATION

The following tables show state and municipal expenditure for school purposes between 1950 and 1980. Expenditure is given in index terms, with 1950 as the base year. The term "school purposes" refers to matters coming within the responsibilities of the National Board of Education at central level, viz schools, adult education and teacher training (last figures only for teacher inservice training), central and regional school administration. Thus other forms of higher education and research are not included.

As can be seen, real expenditure has become more than six times as high at the end of this period as at the beginning of it (rising from 100 to 640). Part of this increase is due to more and more people receiving education, but also expenditure per student has been quadrupled (rising from 100 to 411).

The same period was characterized by a rising affluence. Gross National Product (GNP) i.e. the total national output of goods and services, was more than doubled during the same time (rising from 100 to 242).

In 1950, school expenditure accounted for 2,3 percent of GNP. As can be seen from the table, this figure has since risen to 7,2 percent. Thus expenditure for school purposes has risen steeply in both absolute and relative terms. The rise has attracted attention in political quarters, and demands have been made for its deceleration or curtailment. Efficiency measures and qualitative planning have come to occupy more attention. More will be said on this point in a later chapter.

Table 1. Expenditure for school purposes in Sweden during certain years between 1950-1980. Figures in fixed value of money, 1950/51 = 100.

Year	Expenditure for school purposes		GNP	Expenditure as a percentage of GNP		
	Total	Per student		State	Municipality	Total
1950/51	100	100	100	1,3	1,0	2,3
54/55	147	121	112	1,7	1,4	3,1
58/59	185	140	124	2,0	1,6	3,6
62/63	226	173	148	2,0	1,6	3,6
66/67	301	227	180	2,5	1,7	4,2
70/71	352	250	213	3,0	2,0	5,0
74/75	432	278	238	2,8	2,5	5,3
78/79	562	361	236	3,5	3,2	6,7
79/80	640	411	242	3,6	3,6	7,2

Table 2. Working costs (not capital costs) in US dollars, per student at certain types of education in 1979/80.

Type of school	State	Municipalities	Total costs
The 9-year comprehensive compulsory school	2 038	2 014	4 052
The new integrated upper secondary school	2 518	1 942	4 460
Folk high schools	3 621	1 559	5 180

Exchange rate 1979-10-01: Skr 100 = US$ 24

5 ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

5.1 School Structure

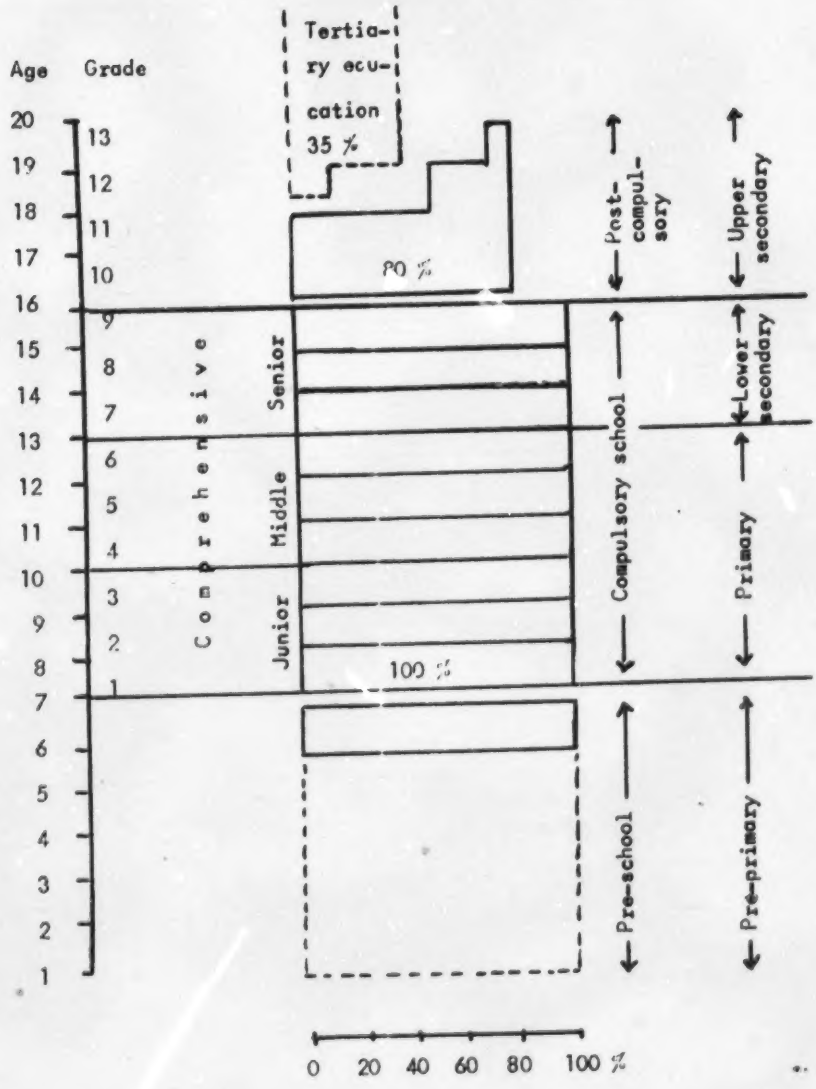
5.1.1 General

The presentation will here be restricted to the Comprehensive School, grade 1-9 and student ages 7-15, and the upper-secondary school ("gymnasieskola"), grades 10-13, and student ages 16-19.

How these schools are interrelated can be seen in diagramme 1. Indications have there been made also for tertiary education (universities and others) and also for pre-primary education. According to a parliamentary act of 1973 pre-primary education should be provided for all children during the year before their entrance to compulsory education. This decision, however, has so far not yet been fully implemented on the local level.

It has not been possible to indicate in the figure the existence of adult community secondary training, labour market training, folk high school courses and evening study circles, which - taken together - make up a considerable part of training on the adult level.

Diagramme 1: School structure



5.1.2 The Comprehensive Basic School

The nine year compulsory comprehensive school, called the "basic school" (Sw. grundskola) is divided into three departmental levels, junior, middle and senior, each running for three academic years. Every academic year covers two terms, autumn and spring, separated by a Christmas leave of about three weeks. Together, the two terms total forty weeks.

Every municipality has a comprehensive school. The junior and middle levels are usually divided into small school units consisting of one, two or three parallel classes for each grade. But there are also schools where two grades form one class with one teacher. The vast majority of children can live at home when enrolled in the junior and middle levels of comprehensive school. The senior level is centralized into larger units with usually at least three, four or up to five or sometimes six or more parallel classes of each grade. In most cases the senior-level children can also live at home. But in the sparsely settled regions of the north and a small number of children are accommodated during the workweek in school homes provided and paid for by the local authorities.

The comprehensive school in a municipality is administratively divided into headmaster areas. The number of such areas is regulated with reference to the number of children. One or more school units may be attached to each headmaster area. A headmaster is defined as the administrative and pedagogical principal in charge of a headmaster area. Second in command to the headmaster in most such areas is a "director of studies", who acts as the headmaster's deputy and who chiefly deals with pedagogical matters.

Students in grades 1-6 learn Swedish, mathematics, local studies history, science, geography, religion, music and gymnastics, and - beginning with grade 3 - English and handicraft (sloyd). Art (drawing) is added to the middle level as a special subject in grade 4 and the local studies course is divided into civics, history, geography and nature studies. At the senior level (grades 7-9) nature studies, according to local study planning, can give way to more

specialized courses in biology, physics and chemistry. In grades 8 and 9 all students, boys and girls, take lessons in home economics and child care. All students also receive instruction in the different "sloyds", textile work, woodworking and metalworking, regardless of sex.

Every student at the junior and middle levels takes all the subjects on offer. There is no splitting up into separate courses. The central curriculum ("Läroplan") points out that individualizing the school work and activating the students are compelling necessities. The bulk of the subjects on offer at the senior level is taken by all students, including a foreign language (English), but five-six lessons per week are devoted to elective subjects. The students will choose either a second foreign language (French or German) or one of the subjects, economics, art and technology. By far the most popular elective is a second foreign language, being chosen so far by nearly two thirds of the students in grade 7. Of the remaining electives the one most in demand is technology. In addition to the electives mentioned, the senior-level students may opt to take what is known as "freely chosen work", i.e. two hours per week provided by the local education authorities.

According to the 1962 Education Act and the syllabus guidelines given by Parliament in 1962 and 1969 comprehensive school students shall belong to the same class to the utmost possible extent, throughout the school period. The classes are to have the most diversified make-up possible as regards social and economic backgrounds of the students. No students should be transferred solely on account of their scholastic performance. Streaming is never practised and it is becoming less common to organize special remedial classes for students with difficulties at school.

The work of the comprehensive school is to be adapted to the individual student's qualifications and interests. Most of this work is done in the school. In compulsory education homework is assigned to appear no more than sporadically. No provision is made for leaving examinations. Although tests enter into the schoolwork, no final tests are given. Final marks are awarded only in certain grades, chiefly at the senior level. Standardized tests are administered in certain subjects and grades. The main objective of these standardized tests

is to make it easier for teachers to judge the level of performance in their classes compared with the level in Sweden as a whole. They are not used to gauge individual scholastic performance, only to indicate the group level and the group distribution in different performances.

Class enrollments may not exceed 25 students at the junior level (grades 1-3) or 30 students at the middle and senior levels (grades 4-9).

Due to the many possibilities to study in smaller groups and to use extra (clinic) teachers, the Student-Teacher Ratio in grades 1-6 (primary level) is 18 and in grades 7-12 (lower secondary and upper secondary level) only 13. These figures seem to belong to the lowest in the world. The density of teachers in Sweden thus seems to be very high.

5.1.3 The Integrated Upper-Secondary School

This school is run by the local authorities and it builds directly on the nine-year comprehensive basic school. It is called integrated as different courses of study are offered "under one roof". The over-arching goal for all education of young persons - the allround personal development of the individual student - thus holds for the secondary school as a whole.

Unlike the basic school the upper-secondary school is strictly divided into "lines" or "streams" (courses of study) with partly different study goals and different vocational thrusts. Preparation for advanced study dominates some lines, notably the three-year and four-year lines and the two-year theoretical lines, while preparation for work careers preponderates in other lines, mainly the two-year vocationally oriented lines.

The lines in upper-secondary school are grouped into three different sectors: 1) arts and social subjects; 2) economics and commercial subjects; 3) scientific and technical subjects. Each sector contains two-year and three-year lines and special courses, i.e. courses which have a more specialized study goal. It is important to notice this

classification of studies, which divides them into different "fields" instead of different "levels". One of the technical lines runs for four years, but may be terminated after the third year, should the student intend to enroll in an institute of technology.

Each year the upper-secondary schools are nowadays capable of admitting all 16-year-olds, totalling more than 100 000 places. The largest capacity is to be found for the following lines in the order named (1979/80): two-year social line (11.700), two-year distribution and clerical line (10.000), two-year home economics line (9.100), four-year technical line (9.000), two-year nursing line (8.700) and three-year natural science line (8.400).

Whereas the comprehensive school chiefly recruits its students from the local district, the upper-secondary school often has several municipalities as its catchment area.

School plant will vary anywhere in size from facilities for about 300 students up to 2.000. Most upper-secondary schools have between 500 and 1.200 students. Nowadays new schools are usually planned for at most 1.000 students. All the schools are co-educational institutions. Every unit of the upper-secondary school is in the charge of a headmaster, who will be seconded by one or more directors of studies depending on the size of school and the composition of lines and courses.

A large group of upper-secondary schools will offer lines running for two, three and four years which differ in their vocational and theoretical orientation. These schools are called integrated. Other schools chiefly feature two-year vocational lines or chiefly three-year and two-year theoretical lines. New upper-secondary school plants are always planned as integrated units. No school has or is meant to have all the 22 lines.

In principle, the students enjoy a free choice of line in the upper-secondary school. But because the availability of places in the different lines is limited, the student cannot always enroll in the

line that is his or her first choice. Whenever the number of applicants exceeds the supply of student places, admission preference will be accorded on the basis of marks earned in comprehensive school and other credits, e.g. experience of the job world. Academic years, terms and leaves are the same in upper-secondary as in basic school.

The official syllabus in force for the upper-secondary school dates from 1970 (Lgy 70). It lays down goals and guidelines for the school work, lists timetables and basic elements, and gives general recommentations on the pursuit of studies line by line. In the second grade of most lines, and where appropriate in the third and fourth grades, there are several different branches and variants with partly varying contents and study goals. It follows that the upper-secondary school is a highly differentiated school type. All lines, however, give courses in Swedish, civics or job-world orientation and gymnastics. In the vocationally oriented lines the students may choose electives from subjects in the two-year theoretical lines. The most common electives are English, mathematics and drawing. Those subjects that are common to all lines, together with the choice of electives in the vocational lines, make it possible for every upper-secondary school student to acquire what is called "general qualification" for entry into higher education.

Like the comprehensive basic school, the upper-secondary school does not confer a leaving examination (G.C.E. or the like). Tests are administered as an integral part of the schoolwork but no provision is made for end-of-term tests. The students are promoted each year to the next higher grade. Nonpromotion does not occur, but voluntary nonpromotion may be permitted for students who want to repeat a class. Special upper-secondary school inspectors employed with the National Board of Education for different subjects will visit the schools to advise the teachers and to help them assess the ability level of their students, and thus ensure that the education provided in different schools achieves an acceptable equality of standards.

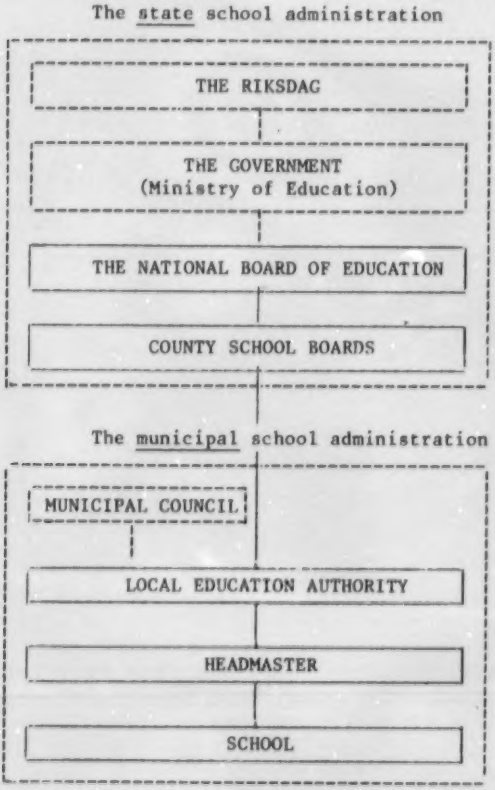
5.2 Administrative Structure

5.2.1 General

School organization is characterized by the partially conflicting

efforts to ensure equal educational standards in all parts of the country and at the same time to provide scope for extensive local influence in the school sector. Organizationally these aims are manifested in the division of responsibility for the school system between a central governmental authority, the National Board of Education (NBE), and a municipal organization within the framework of municipal self-government. Between these two levels there is an intermediate one with 24 County School Boards.

Diagramme 2: Explanatory sketch of the organization of the school system



School organization, then, cannot be regarded as a uniform hierarchy of authorities coming under the Government and Riksdag; account must also be had of representative democracy in the municipalities. The local (=municipal) education authorities (LEA) prescribed in the Education Act of 1962 play a dual role in this connection. At the same time as they constitute an administrative level within school organization as a whole, they are elected by the municipal council and are therefore the political organization through which the opinions of the citizens are manifested. In certain cases the various educational enactments leave the LEA at liberty to make decisions concerning practical implementation according to its own judgement. Moreover, there are many items on the LEA agenda which do not come under the special school legislation in the first place, and which are therefore resolved exclusively by virtue of the general municipal powers enumerated in the Local Government Act. In cases of this kind the LEA acts as a political body within the framework of municipal democracy.

Consideration therefore has to be given to the whole fabric of political organization in the municipalities, and school organization in the broad sense should therefore be taken to include such bodies as the municipal council and the municipal building committee (not reproduced in the diagramme above) as well as the LEA.

If, however, we disregard this broader aspect for the time being and consider the school administration merely in hierarchic terms, we can distinguish between the following main levels: the NBE, the county school boards, the LEA and the headmaster. The headmaster is responsible for a school management area or a single upper-secondary school within the municipal school system.

A further complication is presented by the fact that each of the administrative levels now to be considered comprises a multiplicity of decision-making levels. Thus within the central administrative authority - the NBE - we have - apart from Board level - a Director General's level, a departmental level and a bureau level. Within municipal school administration, below the LEA, there is an officer level (chief education officer, deputy chief education officer, head of school finance etc) to whom the decision-making powers of the LEA are delegated on certain points.

Basic school management areas often include several schools. The administrative assistants (or deputy head teachers) attached to individual schools have no independent decision-making functions. They are mainly charged with teaching duties and matters of student welfare. Since, however, the question of the representation of interests and the question of teachers' co-determination closely concern activities at individual schools, the latter will also be discussed in the section dealing with the administration of the school management area (5.2.5).

Something should also be said in general terms concerning the general and special interests attached to school activities and the exponents of these interests.

School activities are a basic function of crucial importance to social development and, therefore, to all members of society. Certain civic groups are more directly interested in the content and design of the school, while others again are personally affected, but this should not obscure the fact that the school system is primarily a municipal concern.

Municipal interests apart, student interests are the special category of interests which must primarily be taken into account. One of the aims of school activities is for students to be prepared for their part as active members of a democratic society. Part of this democratic training is for students to be enabled to participate in shaping the principles for the conduct of school work and in determining their working conditions.

Where non-adult students are concerned, parents constitute a third interest group. Next, here as elsewhere in the public service, personnel interests also have to be taken into account.

A fourth and quite obvious interest group are the teachers, so far also the most influential one. The school is their working place. Educational development and educational administration are now influenced by new procedures for codetermination, regulated through law (Chapter 9).

Mention can also be made of other special interests. Apart from the interest group formed by the parents of present day students, there is the more general interest group of parents which also includes those whose children have not yet started school. Then there is a recipient interest, comprising those who as the potential employers, colleagues and educators of the students are affected by the ability of the school system to achieve the aims which have been set for it.

In this connection, mention can also be made of the special interests of the local community, to which the SIA Commission has drawn attention i.e. the persons in the immediate vicinity of a school and who are therefore concerned with the manner in which its activities are conducted. This interest group also incorporates the parental interest.

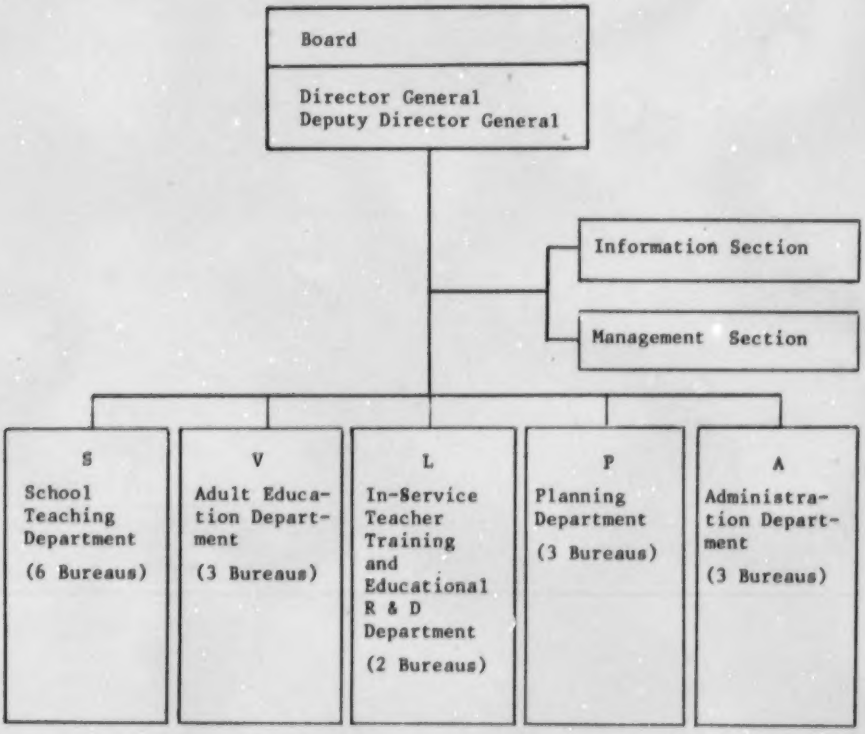
It is questionable, however, whether there is any need for the representation on decision-making bodies of these latter interests, which are more indirectly affected by school activities. Generally speaking, these interests are of such a kind that they should be manifested through representative democracy.

5.2.2 Central Administration

The National Board of Education is an autonomous central board directly responsible to the Government (not to any special minister). Its officers are not politically appointed. They are national officials appointed for fixed terms. Heads of department and division are usually appointed for 6 years, though mostly their appointments are renewed. Other expert categories, such as educational advisers, are usually appointed for shorter periods and are expected at the termination of their appointments to return to the school from which they were recruited.

The organization of the NBE is illustrated by the following diagramme.

Diagramme 3. Simplified organizational structure of the National Board of Education.



In keeping with standing instructions, the supreme decision-making body within the NBE is a lay board. This board is vested with decision-making powers in the following matters:

1. Important legislative and regulatory questions.

2. Matters of particular importance concerning teaching, planning or organization within the education system.

3. Matters of major importance concerning the organization of the Board, its work procedures and the duties of its members.

4. Questions concerning draft budget requests to the Riksdag and other particularly important financial questions.

5. Other matters referred by the Director General for plenary discussion.

The Board comprises the Director General, who is its chairman, the Deputy Director General, who is its vice chairman, and nine other members who are specially appointed by the Government. The standing instructions provide that, of these members,

- one must be closely familiar with labour market affairs,
- one must be appointed from among representatives of tertiary education recipient interests,
- one must be appointed from among representatives of employer and recipient interests in industry and handicraft,
- one must be appointed from among representatives of employer and recipient interests in the commercial and clerical sectors,
- one must be appointed from among representatives of employer and recipient interests in the nursing and welfare sector,
- three must be appointed from among representatives of employees' interests, and
- one must be appointed from among representatives of the municipalities.

The Board has also included a student representative since 1969. This student representation was an experimental measure until 1978, when it became permanent.

In practice the stipulations contained by the standing instructions have resulted in the lay board being composed of representatives of the national administration (the Labour Market Administration, universities and colleges), local government (county councils, municipalities through the medium of the Swedish Associal of Municipal Councils), associations of employers in the private sector (through the Swedish Confederation of Employers - SAF - and the relevant trade associations), the main union organizations (LO, TVO and SACO - manual workers, salaried workers and graduates respectively) and the Central Organization of Swedish School Students, SECO. Since 1974 the Board also has three representatives for the NBE staff, when the internal work at NBE is discussed.

As a central administrative board, the NBE is responsible for a broad sector and an important function of society. It is the task of the NBE to design school activities within the frames defined by political

decisions. In other words, the NBE has extensive responsibilities in the context of goal articulation.

Officially there are only two decision-making levels within the NBE; 1) the Board and 2) the Director General. "Important matters" have to be referred to the Board. Examples of such matters have already been given. The second group of items, those coming within the jurisdiction of the Director General, comprises the great majority. The standing instructions entitle the Director General to delegate decision-making powers in these matters to subordinate heads. This delegation is extensively practised, and decisions are therefore taken by Heads of Department, Heads of Bureau and sometimes also by Heads of Bureau Section. (See also 7.3).

5.2.3 Regional Administration

The 24 County School Boards, which are state administrative bodies at regional level, were set up in 1958, mainly in order to help plan and effect the introduction of the new school system. The formerly separate school inspectors appointed by the Government were attached to the new boards in senior appointments.

Each County School Board incorporates a lay committee of the same kind as at the NBE. The secretariat of the County School Board is headed by a county school inspector, who is assisted by one or two school inspectors. The County School Board decides the allocation of administrative duties and responsibilities between the county school inspector and the school inspectors.

In addition to its secretariat staff, each County School Board has 10-12 half-time in-service teacher training advisers, headed by an in-service training officer.

The main tasks of the County School Board are as follows;

- Regional planning of schools and educational programmes in elementary school, upper-secondary school and municipal adult education.
- Regional in-service teacher training.
- Teaching appointments in schools within the region.

- Matters concerning state grants-in-aid.
- Inspection.
- Disciplinary matters concerning teachers.

In recent years the question has arisen as to whether the County School Boards will be needed in future school organization, among other things because the planning of the new schools is considered more or less a closed topic at regional level. Others have alleged that the County School Boards are above all needed for the sake of educational development and in-service teacher training. The future status and duties of the County School Boards are currently being considered by a governmental commission.

5.2.4 Local Administration

Every municipality has a special committee to act as its Local Education Authority (LEA. The Education Act of 1962 makes it the task of the LEA to observe general developments in the school sector, to survey the general state of the school system within the municipality and to take the necessary measures in order to provide satisfactory educational amenities for children and young persons in the municipality.

It is also the duty of the LEA to

- attend to matters concerning the municipal school system and referable to administration and execution, insofar as these matters are not entrusted to another authority,
- ensure that activities at municipal schools comply with current regulations and to provide for the co-ordination and uniformity of activities,
- encourage educational experimentation and in-service teacher training,
- work for co-operation between schools and homes.

Determined efforts have been made in recent years to expand the responsibilities and powers of the LEA within the school system, for instance concerning such matters as the internal work of schools. State control of the school system at municipal level has been reduced by alterations from 1978 in the system of State grants. The LEA has

this way acquired added importance, not only administratively within the school system but also politically within the municipality.

The members of the LEA are elected by the municipal council in a number determined by the council itself, subject to a statutory minimum of seven. Owing to the proportional method of representation applied in the municipalities, the composition of the LEA reflects the state of the parties in the municipal council, which itself is determined in municipal elections.

Thus the composition of the LEA is rooted in the representative democracy of the municipality.

Discussions and investigations through governmental commissions have been going on in recent years of how to increase municipal democracy through broader personnel influence. Two solutions have been discussed: the right of personnel representatives to attend municipal committee meetings, and the right of a municipal committee to delegate decision-making powers to bodies in which personnel are represented. So far no decisions about changes in this respect have been taken.

School organization can never be viewed in isolation from the main body of municipal administration. Consequently every institutional settlement of questions concerning joint influence must be shaped in accordance with the general principles applying to municipal democracy and the representation of interests in the municipalities.

5.2.5 The Administration of the Individual School

Municipal school organization comprises two main administrative levels: LEA level and headmaster level. School management areas and single upper-secondary schools are led by a headmaster, who is vested with exclusive decision-making powers in administrative questions.

The headmaster's decision-making powers cover matters which the School Statute of 1962 says are to be determined by the headmaster, together with matters delegated to him by the LEA by consent of the municipal council.

Recent proposals by the SIA-Commission and also by a governmental committee have been based on the principle that matters at present decided solely by the headmaster should be decided by a school management committee. This principle accords with the general view that has emerged in the reports of other commissions investigating the school system and municipal administration in general. There are several reasons in favour of such a development. The latest municipal boundary reform has resulted in larger municipal school administrations requiring a greater degree of civic insight even at administrative levels below LEA level. The emphasis which educational reforms have placed on the position of schools as part of the community at large also speak in favour of such an arrangement, as do the efforts being made to widen the sphere of municipal responsibility in the school sector. No decision has yet (1979) been taken, however, concerning the introduction of these school management committees.

5.3 Personnel and Student Management

5.3.1 Who Decides What in School ?

Summing up we find that decisions are taken at different political and administrative levels, the main points being the following:

The Riksdag determines the goal and content of schooling and allocates funds for school activities.

Within the Government the Ministry of Education (utbildningsdepartementet) executes the decisions of the Riksdag within the financial limits laid down and is assisted in so doing by

The National Board of Education (skolöverstyrelsen, SÖ), which develops curricula, plans the main outlines of teaching, allocates government grants, inspects schools etc., assisted by

The County Board of Education (länsskolnämnden) in each county, which is responsible for the inspection of schools in its county, plans and co-ordinates the schools of the various municipalities and allocates government grants to the individual

Municipality (kommun), which through the medium of its

Local Education Authority (skolstyrelse) directs and is responsible for the development of municipal schools by means of government grants and funds provided by the municipality. The local education authority delegates certain decisions to its

School Management Areas (rektorsområde), which is led by a headmaster or headmistress (rektor), who is responsible for activities in the area.

It is important to know these interrelations between different levels of decision making in order to understand the management of school personnel and students.

All officers within the school system are bound in the exercise of their duties to follow the instructions and directions concerning schools that are contained in the Education Act, the School Statute and the central curricular guidelines ("Läroplan").

Typical for Swedish administration is, that all decisions are subject to appeal in the next superior instance.

5.3.2 Teacher and School Management

Until 1958, primary school teachers were municipal employees, while secondary school teachers were generally state employees. The resolution adopted by the Riksdag in 1958 made all teachers in the public school system municipal employees.

Teachers, however, have long been ranked according to the system of pay and appointments applying to state officials. The teachers' associations therefore regard both the state and the municipalities as the teachers' employers. This is underlined by the fact that teachers are appointed by a state authority. Permanent appointments are advertised by the LEA when vacant, but they are filled by the regional authority, i.e. the County School Board. Supernumerary and locum appointments, on the other hand, are filled by the LEA.

Chief education officers in the municipalities are appointed by the Government, as are the headmasters of some of the larger secondary schools. Other headmasters are appointed by the NBE. Headmastership appointments are made for terms of up to six years. Appointments are usually renewed, however, which means that in practice headmasters hold permanent appointments.

Chief education officers and headmasters therefore rank officially as municipal employees, although they are appointed by national authorities. When an appointment of this kind is to be filled, the LEA always nominates a candidate, and in the majority of cases municipal nominations have been followed by the national authorities responsible for filling appointments.

The debate in recent years concerning the decentralization of decision making and administration in the school system has often come to focus on the appointment of teachers and school management (= headmasters and directors of studies). The argument has propounded that LEAs should be free to appoint their own officers. This argument, however, has been vigorously opposed by the associations of teachers and headmasters.

Until 1969 the Education Act included provisions concerning union representation in local education authorities. These teacher union representatives, who were appointed by the teachers in the municipal school system, were entitled - even in matters where they did not enjoy rapporteur status - to attend LEA meetings, participate in discussions and have their opinions noted in the minutes of the meetings. The LEA was the sole municipal committee with such a form of representation.

An Act passed in 1972 concerning the right of attendance at municipal committee meetings empowers the Government, following a request by a municipality or county council area, to allow a certain municipal or county council committee to rule that representatives of municipal or county council employees may attend its meetings and take part in its deliberations though not in its decision-making activities.

This act applies to all municipal committees and therefore covers the LEAs and the rights of teachers and school management to attend LEA meetings. No systematic information has yet been compiled concerning the practical implementation of the act.

5.3.3 Student Participation

The Education Act and the School Statute state in general terms that suitable provison is to be made to enable students to participate in the shaping of school activities. The formal structure of this participation is defined in one respect: every upper-secondary school must have a joint committee comprising the headmaster, two teachers (appointed by the teaching staff), two students (appointed by the students) and two other members (appointed by the LEA).

The joint committee is an advisory body. Its task is to work for effective co-operation, good order and a pleasant atmosphere in school. According to recommendations issued by the NBE, joint committee activities should include the following:

a) Deliberations on matters concerning school comfort, co-operation, rules of order and discipline within the individual school, and efforts in all these respects to establish good conditions at the school.

b) Comments on rules of order drafted by the headmaster for his management area.

c) Co-operation with various school officers, with the parents of students and with child and youth welfare authorities within the municipality, and general efforts to establish a positive relationship between the school and the community at large.

A special investigation has to be made by the joint committee of questions concerning the suspension or expulsion of a student from school. Depending on the nature of the business involved, the school nurse, the school psychologist and the school welfare officer can be summoned to take part in discussions, though not in decision making.

In recent years joint committees have also been set up at most basic

schools (ages 7-15 years), although the statutory provisions concerning joint committees do not apply to these schools. Since 1977 all basic school classes have a "class council", composed of the class teacher and representatives of the students.

The results of joint committee and class council activities vary from one school to another but have on the whole been encouraging. Students however, have often maintained that the committees cannot exert any genuine influence on school activities, since they are merely advisory bodies without decision-making powers.

The general goals and guidelines of the curricula state repeatedly that students are to play an active part in the planning of activities, among other things by attending meetings of the joint organizations of teachers. Two such organizations are compulsory. These are 1) the class conference, comprising all the teachers who take a particular class, and 2) the subject conference, comprising all the teachers in a school who teach a particular subject, irrespective of the levels at which they do so.

5.3.4 Social Welfare at School

An important part of school administration is the handling of the social welfare at school. This is run by headmasters and other municipal officials. In most respects they here have to follow general rules and guidelines. According to Swedish law and practice social welfare is not poor relief. Thus social welfare is given to all, regardless of income and prosperity. Only a few special grants, mainly for travelling and lodging and certain study loans at upper-secondary level, are subject to needs tests.

1. School health service. Regular medical checks are carried out at school. Each school has a doctor and nurse to help the students in matters concerning their health.

2. Dental treatment. Basic school students are entitled to free dental treatment through the public dental service (Folktandvården) for as long as they continue to attend this school.

3. School meals are provided free of charge by local authorities.

4. School transport is arranged for students who have to travel long distances.

5. Teaching materials. All teaching materials are supplied to the students free of charge.

6. Insurance. The school is responsible for its students during school hours. Local authorities generally insure students against accidents.

7. Leisure activities are usually available at the school, sometimes organized by youth organizations.

8. Instruction in public schools is free of charge.

9. Financial assistance in the form of study grants (studiebidrag) and study loans (studielån) is available for upper-secondary education. Students 16-19 years receive study grants of 180 crowns (= 44 US$) monthly. Certain supplements and study loans may also be awarded. Students 20 and over receive an enlarged study grant and may also apply for student loans.

All forms of study assistance apart from study loans are grants and as such are non-repayable.

6 SCHOOL - COMMUNITY RELATIONS

In many respects the introduction of the nine-year comprehensive basic school and the integrated upper-secondary school on a national basis during the 1950s and 1960s had the effect of reinforcing the position of school in the community. More and more young people came to spend longer periods of their lives in school. Efforts to give school a practical and communal orientation also led to the introduction of new subjects such as civics, social studies, technology, economics and domestic science. The older form of vocational training comprising specialized apprenticeship training on an in-plant basis was reduced or abolished. A wider scheme of vocational education, with interchangeable practical and theoretical components, was introduced in schools. Compulsory school was made to include three weeks' practical vocational guidance in trade and industry etc. for all students in the terminal grade. Facilities were provided for a considerable prolongation of this form of vocational guidance in the case of students suffering from school fatigue. Special study and vocational guidance teachers were appointed in schools. These teachers also operated within the Labour Market Administration to arrange vocational practice opportunities for students from their schools. Upper-secondary schools now have special study and vocational guidance advisers (SYO advisers) to whom students can turn for help and advice.

All of these innovations involding wider contacts between school and the community were aimed at making school more communally oriented and at bringing the community into school life. In recent years there have been signs of another, somewhat contrary movement. Efforts have been made to re-acquaint students with practical work and to give them more experience of the community at large. Other persons besides teachers have been given the opportunity of teaching in schools. The police, for example, have taken over the task of traffic education in schools. It has also been said that teachers should engage in other activities besides teaching. Local projects whereby students have been enabled in various ways to participate in work outside school have been

organized in many places. Schools have been opened to pre-school children and adults, one such scheme being the serving of lunches to pensioners in school dining rooms.

One sign that students themselves wish to alternate between studies and practical work is to be seen in the high drop out rate in upper-secondary school. About one-fifth of all upper-secondary students discontinue their studies for one or more years in favour of practical employment, returning later on to resume their studies. Generally speaking, however, experience within the Swedish school system suggests that the introduction of a regular scheme of recurrent education is more dependent on measures in working life and in business enterprise than on changes within school itself. Changes of the latter kind are considered to present less of a problem.

This discussion and the local projects to which it has given rise cannot be gone into here. A short description will be given, however, of a scheme which has recently been launched by the NBE, the National Labour Market Board, trade unions and employers' associations, and which is expected to yield more general solutions. Together these authorities and organizations have set up a commission which in 1975 presented a report on co-operation between school and working life.

On the basis of this report every local community now has organized a SSA committee (SSA stands for Samarbete Skola-Arbetsliv = Co-operation between School and Working Life). It is up to these committees to help young people in accordance with local conditions and within the following sectors, having reference to the connection between education, working life and vocational training:

a) Mutual information between school and working life and within the education system itself.

b) The organization, forms and content of study and vocational guidance.

c) The activities and organization of the local vocational committees.

d) Education on work environment questions and labour market orientation.

e) The inventory and presentation of school requirements in the way

of contacts with working life and the ability of trade unions, firms etc. to cater for those requirements.

f) Work allocation and co-ordination - chronologically and in other respects - with regard to the procurement of work places for school's working life orientation.

g) Efforts on behalf of premature basic school-leavers, regular school-leavers, who do not go on to upper-secondary school or who fail to complete the course of education/training they commence in upper-secondary after leaving elementary school.

h) Measures on behalf of handicapped students.

i) Extension training facilities for school personnel and representatives of working life.

j) The forms, content and methods of contacts between school and working life and of the evaluation of activities.

The members of each committee should be appointed by the local education authority after nominations have been received from central employers' associations concluding collective agreements on behalf of private employers and, where employee representatives are concerned, from local trade union organizations, TCO (salaried employees) union committee and SACO/SR (graduate employees) associations. Both the public and private sectors of working life are to be represented. Employers and employees are to be equally represented. Each SSA committee is also to include representatives of the local Employment Service. The local education authority is to be responsible for the activities of the SSA committee and for the provision of secretarial and other clerical facilities. Efforts are to be made to achieve equal representation of the sexes in the SSA committees.

After two years of experimental activities with SSA committees in a restricted number of municipalities such committees are now since 1977 established in all municipalities.

7 SPECIAL FRAMEWORK OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN SWEDEN

7.1 The Uniqueness of the Swedish System

It ought really to be the task of an outsider to describe the specifically Swedish qualities of educational administration and its relations to educational development. These qualities may consist in an elusive atmosphere, an informal work organization or a series of tacit premises concerning the activities of schools and school administration. If we disregard such elusive idiosyncrasies, however, and attempt instead to point to specifically Swedish phenomena influencing the manner in which teaching is conducted and developed, there are above all two such phenomena which serve to distinguish the Swedish system from the school systems of other countries. The first of these is the Swedish system of committees through which education policy is expressed in concrete proposals. The second is the central administrative boards in Sweden, which assume responsibility for the realization of policy decisions.

There are two main central boards responsible for not only administration but also development in the education system. One of these, the National Board of Education, which has already been mentioned several times, is responsible for the public school system at primary and secondary level, including vocational education and certain forms of adult education. The other, the National Board of the Swedish Universities and Colleges, which is mainly responsible for education at tertiary level, will not be described here in any detail, though it may be interesting to note that from 1977 the training of teachers for schools coming under the NBE was transferred from the NBE to the National Board of the Swedish Universities and Colleges.

7.2 Government Commissions

Practically every major reform in Sweden, be it in the field of

education or elsewhere, is preceded by investigations carried out by specially appointed Government Commission. Such commissions are employed in the majority of western countries, but the Swedish version presents a number of unique features, among them the following.

1. The appointment of a central committee or Commission is nearly always initiated by central political instances, i.e. Parliament (the Riksdag) and/or the Government. Terms of reference are drawn up by the Government (for present purposes by the Minister of Education), which is also centrally responsible for the working of this type of investigatory machinery.

2. The important Commissions always include representatives of the political parties (usually M.P.s), experts and representatives of interests involved. In educational committees, the latter two categories have been represented by researchers, teachers and school administrators. Commissions thus provide a meeting point for representatives of policy, research and administration.

3. The work done by these Commissions often includes research into the conditions applying to educational reforms. In recent years, for example, several doctoral theses have been produced under the aegis of Government Commissions.

4. The final report of a Commission, containing proposals and estimates of the expenditure they involve, is presented to the commissioning authority (the Minister of Education for present purposes). The Minister then circulates the report to the interests concerned for critical evaluation. The authorities and interests thus consulted in educational matters include central, regional and local school authorities, associations of teachers and students, teacher training establishments and other interests, depending on the nature of the business in hand.

5. Almost without exception, the comments received in this circulation process are summarized by the Minister and incorporated in a Bill to the Riksdag in which the Government proposes policy measures for the problem area which has been investigated. It is probably a uniquely Swedish practice that in these Bills the members of the Riksdag are informed, not only of the course of the work done by the Commission but also of the opinions expressed by the authorities and organizations

consulted and of the amendments they have proposed. The circulation process and the report on that process given to the Riksdag are regarded as an important element of democracy in Sweden.

6. The decision taken by the Riksdag is executed by the Government, often with direct reference to the work done by the Commission. The execution of decisions of education policy is entrusted to the administrative authorities - for present purposes the National Board of Education (NBE) - which have to follow the guidelines laid down by the Government.

7.3 The National Board of Education

As mentioned earlier, the NBE more or less corresponds to the administrative side of the Ministry of Education in other countries. The Swedish Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs, which is the Central political authority, has a personnel strength of about 200, while the NBE has about 800 officials. The NBE is divided into five departments, eighteen bureaus and, below bureau level, a number of sections. The heads of these units are usually appointed for six years at a time, and more often than not their appointments continue for more than one period. Most of them are experts on pedagogics and on the financial and administrative aspects of school affairs, and the majority have served previously as municipal chief education officers or as educational development experts. Accordingly they are not only civil servants but also professionals in charge of school development.

According to its standing instructions, the task of the NBE is

- to ensure that the content and methods of education are constantly renewed, developed and improved in keeping with the progress of research and the development of public and private administration, commerce and industry and the labour market, as well as other sectors of society, due regard being had to conditions in other countries.

- to attend to the general and co-ordinated planning of the scope, direction and organization of the education system, with due regard for the educational needs and desires of individuals and for society's need of skilled labour, to keep closely in touch with regional and local planning and to support the same, and to work for the promotion of practical planning methods.

- to follow the development of educational costs and to promote the efficient utilization of resources,

- by constant rationalization, to contribute towards the rapid and efficient working of educational administration,

- to support and promote educational activities at regional and local level by information, guidance and other measures,

- to ensure that knowledge concerning educational development is rapidly disseminated among authorities and others responsible for activities, and among those otherwise affected by activities.

The NBE has unquestionably become the most important authority concerned with the interpretation of the decisions of educational policy taken by the Riksdag and the Government. One important aspect of this interpretation is the central curricula ("Läroplan") issued by the NBE, as well as the responsibility it assumes for the planning of central measures of educational research and development.

The Swedish term "läroplan" or "learning and teaching plan" does not exactly correspond to the English term "curriculum". A Swedish curriculum includes general aims and guidelines for school, time schedules and goals and main items of individual subjects. These parts of the curricula contain certain general rules to be followed by authorities, school administrators and teachers. In other respects a curriculum is confined to recommendations concerning the content of courses, teaching methods, working methods and examination.

The curricula have been found, however, to exert something of a steering effect, due among other things to teaching materials, most of which are constructed by independent writers and educational publishers, being based on curricular recommendations. Another important factor is that the evaluation instruments compiled centrally by the NBE are also based on the curricula. At compulsory school level, these instruments are diagnostic and indicative in character. They are not compulsory in this school, but they are used by about 95 percent of teachers. The corresponding standardized achievement tests for upper-secondary school are still more important. These

tests are compulsory. The individual teacher is at liberty to construct his own tests instead of the ones made by the NBE, but experience has shown that the majority of upper-secondary school teachers employ the evaluation instruments constructed and tested centrally.

A third important factor is that the NBE is responsible for the central planning of most educational research in Sweden. The NBE distributes 2/3 of the funds awarded for this purpose. Distribution is effected through the commissioning of research in accordance with a plan drawn up by the NBE. Commissions are awarded to the research institutions of universities and schools of education and to certain municipalities sponsoring development projects.

As mentioned earlier, the NBE also occupies a strong central position through its appointment of headmasters in the public school system.

The NBE has undoubtedly played a very important part in the realization of the goals of education policy. Without an NBE it would probably have been impossible to replace the old system of parallel schools within such a short space of time with a universal and integrated system of primary and secondary education covering the entire country.

The current debate on schools, however, has featured a vigorous discussion of the role of the NBE in the school system of the future. Demands for a decentralization of decision making in the school sector and for an adjustment of solutions to local circumstances point towards a reduction of the organization and responsibilities of the NBE. At the same time, however, there is a strong body of opinion, not least among teachers' associations, against the weakening of the central authority; this opinion is motivated by a desire to safeguard the uniformity of school structure and the equality of eduational standards.

8 MOTIVES AND DRIVING FORCES BEHIND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The reasons for the changes, briefly indicated in section 4.1 above, were many. The school system before 1950 was clearly dualistic: a minor proportion of students were selected at an early stage for higher studies, the majority attended only the ordinary primary school. It was this that began to be regarded, increasingly, as unmodern and undemocratic. The aim became to achieve better and longer education for all, not just for the few, and the creation of what was then termed a "democratic" school system. The forces underlying these efforts were of different kinds, with anchorages in different pressure groups. To simplify the matter slightly, one can group these forces under three different heads: socio-political progressivism, pedagogic progressivism and - which here might be seen as something new - administrative progressivism.

8.1 Socio-political progressivism

Socio-political progressivism was the strongest of these. It existed above all in some of Sweden's traditional "People's Movements". The labour movement, both blue-collar and white-collar, which even at that time embraced the majority of workers and salaried staff in industry and the administration, had long urged, in its programmes, the need for better education for all. The same was true in other People's Movements, including the temperance movement, the sporting and athletics movement, the women's associations, the consumer co-operative movement, and the "Home and School" movement. Many of these had their own organizations for popular education, which arranged courses at Folk High Schools, study circles, and lectures. The largest was the Workers' Educational Association (ABF), which even at that time had around half a million members (the Swedish population then being about 7 million).

The main aim of socio-political progressivism was equality, i.e. to open the paths to higher education to all, and to offer everyone the

same educational opportunities regardless of socio-economic status and geographical domicile. The new school was to be common to all. And it would not involve - at least not until as late as possible - any division of students into what were then regarded as better and less good paths of study (known in Sweden at the time as "theoretical" and "practical" studies).

This sort of socio-political progressivism had long had its champions in Swedish politics, above all in the Liberal Party. It was not, however, until after World War II that it acquired firm anchorage in the Swedish debate on educational policy. It was at this point that the Social Democratic Party took it over, incorporating in its general welfare programme the educational ideology that had previously been urged mainly by the People's Movements. This, then, is an example - and one among many - of how the People's Movements have given rise to political movements. The Social Democratic Party, which was essentially a workers' party, was in all essentials supported in its social-political educational progressivism by the Liberal Party (whose programme had even previously included a more uniform and improved basic education) and by the Agrarian Party, subsequently renamed the Centre Party, which was concerned above all to see better education among the rural population.

The aim of socio-political educational progressivism was thus educational equality for different socio-economic groups in the community. This also implied equality of educational opportunities between urban and rural areas. From the very beginning, but ever more clearly over the years, there was also a demand for educational equality between men and women. This socio-political progressivism acquired its focal point in the large-scale Government Commission on Schools which the post-war Social Democratic Government set up in 1946, and which presented its proposals for a revized school system in 1948. This was the programme that was adopted, with minor modifications, by Parliament in 1950.

8.2 Pedagogic progressivism

The other kind of progressivism, pedagogic progressivism, coincided only in part with the socio-political variety discussed above. Pedagogic progressivism also had its older traditions. These were partly

native to Sweden, partly of foreign origin. Several of Sweden's 19th century pedagogic theoreticians and practitioners (J.O.Wallin,E.G.Geijer), J.P.Lefrén, T.Rudenskiöld, O.Salomon, A.Sandström) can be seen as the forerunners of this progressivsim. From around the turn of the century it acquired strong support from the growing discipline of pedagogic psychology, both in Sweden and abroad. The writings of Americans, J.Dewey and W.Kilpatrick had exercised a great influence on pedagogic thinking ("learning by doing"). A corresponding infleunce was exercised by foreign, mainly German, activity school educationists (such as O.Glöcker and what was known as the Vienna School). In Sweden, too, several distinguished and influential activity school educationists emerged in the wake of the new psychology of pedagogics, including Elsa Köhler in Gothenburg and Arvid Gierow in Helsingborg.

It was the working approach adopted in schools in accordance with the pedagogic progressivism that came in due course, in the 1940s, to influence educational thinking in Sweden. Co-operation between teachers and pupils, inter-disciplinary school-work and the co-ordination of theoretical and practical studies, these emerged as methodological solutions suitable for the new school. Favourable examples of this pedagogic progressivism were evident in the Folk High Schools, and in the study-circle activities of the organizations for popular education. Above all, group work and individualized studies were seen to offer new solutions to the problems of differentiation that had previously been solved by dividing students up into paths of education which clearly differed in status and came to constitute one school for the general populace and another for academic studies.

What happened in the 1940s - and this provided a basis for the wide-embracing reform in Swedish education from 1950 onwards - was that the two types of progressivism met in a political education programme. As being the stronger of the two, socio-political progressivism came to dominate even from this point. The decisive questions were organizational, and related to the length of schooling, the organization of different lines of study, and choice of studies. The methodological solutions, with individualization, differentiation, structure of subjects and size and heterogeneity of classes, had to be provided within the organizational frameworks set. The solutions, it was thought,

were after all there, in pedagogic progressivism and its examples of individualization and co-operation in groups.

From around 1950 the feat to be performed was to fuse these two types of progressivism. The attempt, as we shall see, has met with only partial success. The process is still going on, and it continues to excite debate.

Socio-political progressivism has achieved its breakthrough, insofar as it has given Sweden a uniform school structure, extended education for all, and an educational system in which the organizational division of students takes place only after the completion of compulsory schooling, i.e. an entire new school structure. But has it given us new and progressive teaching methods?

Before answering this question, we should be quite clear about the fact that the early progressive educationists, the pedagogic pioneers of the 1930s and 1940s, were in a clear minority in Sweden. They were strong, it is true, but they were nonetheless few in number. They also worked entirely within the frameworks that were set for them, which is to say with the division made at that time into primary schools and secondary schools, academic subjects and other subjects. They worked within the system that then existed for marking and examinations, with the rejection of "failures" that was then practised, with the system of selection that was then accepted. In the light of more recent development it may seem unreasonable to imagine that the methods and working procedures of these progressive educationists could be quite simply transferred to a school that - thanks to the efforts of socio-political progressivism - has acquired an entirely different structure, other subjects and groups of students, other procedures for the checking of knowledge, examination and selection.

Educational reform, ultimately, is always a political question. The pedagogic element can make its voice heard, but to have any impact it must acquire a political anchorage. The main anchorage in the present case was acquired by socio-political progressivism, with its considerations of equality, social justice, and democracy. The pedagogic solutions came in second place.

8.3 Administration of Progressivism

This brings us to a third and new type of progressivism we here want to designate, namely what might be called administrative progressivism. This is a phenomenon consequent upon the two former types. It is, we can say, secondary, in that it presupposes the two former. It is secondary also in the sense that it is created by an integration of the two former.

It is precisely this fusion of mutually independent if not actually conflicting theses that is the necessary condition for realization of the reform. The reform will succeed, if the third type of progressivism is achieved. This applies at all levels in the educational machinery, the local and the central and to both teaching and administrative staff.

The word "administrative" suggests a static bureaucracy, an executive realization of established principles without innovation. Progressivism implies something else, a change, an advance. But even progressivism needs its instrumentation, its administrative apparatus. It is in the applicability of this administrative apparatus to change that administrative progressivism lies. It would be equally possible to speak of the "administration of progressivsim".

A new definition of administration is thus required here. It is not only what is once and for all given, what is established, that can and should be administered. It must also be possible to administer a change.

The characteristic feature of this sort of progressive administration is in fact that it presupposes action, decision-making and checks in a situation in which the premisses for change are often unclear. If one takes as one's starting-points the aims of socio-political progressivism, which is to say equality and democratization, then the decisions made and controls exercised can be other than they would be when applying the premisses of pedagogic progressivism, namely a new content and a new working approach. The administrative apparatus is usually required to do at least the following three things:

(1) Interpret the aims of educational policy. The decisions of Parliament and Government are often generally and diffusely formulated. The aims set up allow different interpretations and different practical arrangements. The political arm is often perfectly aware of this, and thus leaves the detailed interpretation to administrative agencies at the central and local levels.

(2) To adopt a position when aims conflict. Political decisions concerning the school system and education can be mutually incompatible, or at least be comprehended as such. It is here the task of the administrative apparatus to clarify the situation and itself adopt a position concerning conflicting aims and arrive at mutually compatible interpretations.

(3) To set priorities between different aims. Often, political decisions can not be fully implemented with the monetary funds or other resources made available in the decision. Here, the administrative apparatus is required to set priorities, to rank, and to set up the time-tables and resource schedules that the political arm refrains from.

In this way the administration becomes a power per se for educational development. To implement decisions becomes the same as interpreting decisions, or making subsidiary decisions. A reform that stops simply at a political, verbal expression of will is no reform. An implemented reform is always an administrated reform. Implementation is a responsibility for both the central and local administration. Communication between these two levels is of major importance. Local education committees, school managers and teachers are surrounded by conservative forces and will often fail to implement what is new unless they receive support from the central administration.

9 NEW CONDITIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

9.1 New Laws on Working Conditions

During the late 1960s the efforts to improve efficiency in work in general were noticeably increased in Sweden. Old and handicapped workers were primarily stroken by this. Many of them lost their jobs in the competition for work and had difficulties to get new jobs. With this as a background Parliament in Sweden in 1974 instituted a set of laws on security of employment, through which the associations of employees got an increased influence on decisions on employment and dismissal in cases where the employers had earlier been sole determiners.

The 1974 Act on Employment Protection is in principle valid for all employees, thus also administrators, teachers and other employees in education. These are protected against what - according to certain definitions - is seen as unjustified notices of dismissal. And procedures and conditions for dismissal are regulated.

Interpretations and applications of this law have proved to be rather complicated for employees in research and development in education, because many activities in this field are short in time and highly specialized. As "educational research" or "educational development" constitute a large variety of special jobs with little or no interchangeability of single experts, this law of employment security has proved to be not only difficult to interpret but sometimes also a damage for the quality of the work. An educational researcher in one speciality cannot simply be exchanged by an educational researcher in another speciality. Certain rules of application of the law in specialized appointments are also being developed. Unfortunately, they must often make a long detour over judgements in Labour Court. This new law so far has been more helpful to single researchers than to research in general. Quite naturally this complicates not only educational administration but also educational development. Hopefully,

procedures will be found which can result in a smooth administration of education as well as a true development of education.

A second law of utmost importance for educational development is the 1977 Act on the Joint Regulation of Working Life. This law also applies to all employees. It gives the employee the right to negotiate through his or her union and reach agreements on conditions of work. The law also enjoins the employer to provide his employees with information and to enter into negotiations when changes are planned in the employee's conditions of work. The law has helped strengthen the influence of teachers and other staff categories on decisions within the educational system, even if decisions on educational policy are always incumbent upon the regular authorities.

No doubt the Act on the Joint Regulation of Working Life is bringing along a number of changes in administration and development of education. Much of the regular management work, which was previously done by superintendents and headmasters, now has to start in a series of information activities and negotiations. Sometimes introductions of new working schemes in schools are delayed for months or even stopped. Yet there are also advantages in that agreements - when finally arrived at - will be accepted and followed by the parties involved. Development activities might not start more often than before (in some places perhaps more seldom), but when they start they might procede more successfully than before. A change of the role of specialists in educational research and development is also gradually coming. The increased involvement of teachers in research and development activities has sometimes transferred the leading role from the researchers to the teachers. Traditional experimental research, with problems and procedures defined by researchers and their institute staff, will certainly exist also in the future, but they might have to make room for action research projects, in which the researchers are no longer the self-evident leaders but contributors to a team-work.

9.2 Unionism and Representative Democracy

School administration and school development is profoundly affected by the modus operandi of school governing bodies. An interesting development has begun in recent years where representative democracy

through the medium of political parties if often called into question on the grounds that it is interests and not individuals that should be represented. Representation should be functional, not individual. The various corporativist schools of thought differ in their opinion concerning the interests which should be represented.

A professional interest and an interest of more general nature might overlap. Where interest organizations in education are concerned, it is above all teachers, though to some extent students and parents as well, who are anxious to gain more influence in decision-making bodies.

Unlike the political parties, whose task is to represent the public interest or to reconcile various interests in a uniform programme, the organizations represent specific interests. This is patently obvious in the case of organizations with a self-evident opposite party, employees opposite to employers.

Although their internal democratic structure is often underdeveloped, the organizations can still function efficiently, centering as they do round special interests concerning the needs of which a high degree of consensus can generally be presumed. But this argument is only applicable to the central interests round which the organizations have been built up. When they proceed to the discussion of social issues of a more general nature, there is nothing to guarantee the representative status of such interest organizations.

Decision-making, for instance, about a programme for educational development, can follow two principally different ways: (1) voting in bodies representing the public interest, such as a LEA, or (2) negotiations between organizations representing special interests or between a board representing the public interests and an organization representing a special interest. (We here exclude cases where all individuals concerned can participate directly in assembly meetings). The difference between these two procedures shall be seen against the fact that people elect parties but belong to organizations. Attention should be payed to certain difficulties where the representation of interests is concerned. Nobody can say how big a certain interest is, what weight is to be given to it and, accordingly, how many representatives or votes it should be allotted. A consequence of

this is that there are no methods for resolving conflicts between different interests in the final round. All one can say is that representatives of different interests should meet together with the object of reaching an agreement.

An interest organization can exert direct influence on public administration not only through negotiations and agreements but also via representation on decision-making bodies incorporated by the authorities. In Sweden teachers were represented in the LEAs until 1969.

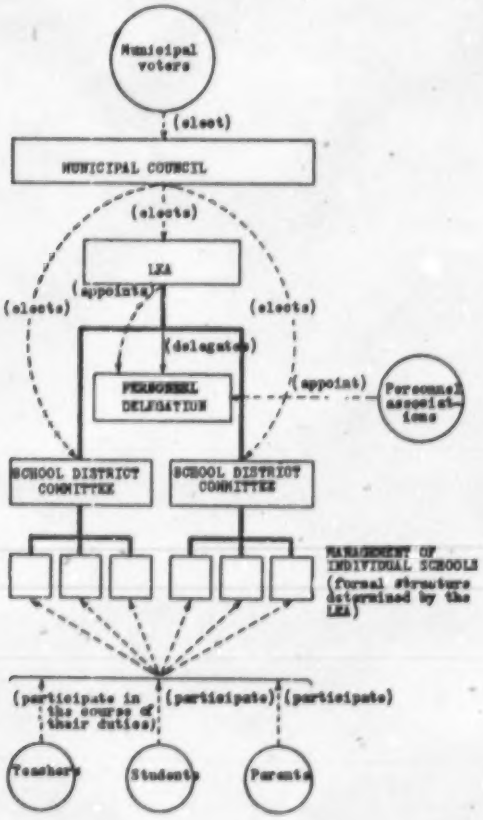
The tug-of-war between those advocating government by representative political democracy and those advocating the representation of interests has only begun and will probably continue to influence the conditions of school administration and school development for some time to come. The supremacy of representative democracy has not really been seriously called into question. The issue at stake is more concerned with the boundaries between representative democracy and the representation of interests, the point at which majority decisions cease to constitute the basis of administrative procedure and at which, accordingly, actions have to be based upon agreements between the parties involved.

In education the problem of demarcation is complicated by the fact that school activities cannot be viewed as a simple bilateral issue between teachers as employees and school authorities as employers. Students and parents also rank unquestionably as interested parties and may demand representation and powers of veto in the decision-making process in this connection.

Teachers' associations and other personnel organizations may have a justifiable interest in participating in decisions concerning personnel matters, and concerning terms of employment and working conditions. One way of providing for these interests is for the body representing the public interest (at local level the LEA) to delegate decision-making powers in personnel matters of this kind to a special personnel body in which decisions are reached by agreement between the parties involved (and <u>not</u> by a majority vote).

In the Swedish debate, the political scientists Westerståhl Persson (1975) have drafted a scheme for striking a balance between public interests and special interests at municipal level. Their proposals are illustrated by the diagramme below. The "personnel delegation" and "school district committee" shown in the diagramme do not actually exist, and legislative amendments would be needed in order for their establishment to be facilitated and opportunities provided in this way of balancing public and specific interest. The discussion of this point continues.

Diagramme 4. Draft scheme of municipal school organization according to Westerståhl and Persson (1975).



Ir its final report the Commission on the Working Conditions in Swedish Schools (The SIA Commission, 1974) proposed that a new kind of local consultative and management committees should be set up at the local level of a headmasters district or individual school (these two sometimes coincide in Sweden). They should be composed of students, parents and staff. This proposal was further developed by a small ministerial group in 1976. According to this specified proposal these local committees should have the right of decision in certain matters, while in others they should have only a deliberative and consultative function. This committee closely corresponds to what Westerståhl and Persson suggest as "School District Committee" but also "Management of Individual Schools" (Diagramme 4).

This proposal, which makes up an attempt to balance public interests and special interests to each other on the municipality level, has been carefully studied and evaluated by organizations concerned. So far no final decision has been taken about them. The problem of balance involved here is urgently in need of a solution in order to avoid the deadlock frequently occurring nowadays between conflicting interests - a deadlock which is liable to paralyse the development and administration of the school.

10 SUMMARY

This paper is an attempt to describe and analyse some aspects of the interrelationships of educational administration and educational development with Sweden taken as a case-study. Some of the special conditions of the Swedish educational system and its management are initially described such as: that Sweden has very few private schools and that regular schools are governed by a local political board and a local school administration; costs for the school system are shared by the municipality and the state, giving a divided authority structure with a central administration and a local administration. Direct management is maintained by the latter, while control is maintained by the former through a system of regional state authorities.

New conditions of educational administration - and therefore also of educational development - are appearing through a growing trend of connecting educational activities to community activities at large. School administration is, in this way, increasingly becoming an administration of school-community interrelations and the driving forces behind this development are: a socio-economic progressivism with goals as equality, welfare and justice through education, and a pedagogic progressivism aimed at improving teaching-learning conditions and teacher-student relations. These moves must be co-ordinated, which requires an administration of a new kind, where not a static but a changing school has to be administered. Local, as well as central, administrators are often forced to do at least three things: (1) interpret the aims of educational policy, (2) adopt a position when aims conflict and (3) set priorities between different aims. As such educational administration in itself becomes a driving-force for educational development. Management of education has also come to occupy a somewhat new position through new laws on employment protection and on joint regulation of working conditions. The influence of development activities on working condition is increasingly becoming a matter of negotiations between employers and employees (here teachers) - with research and development personnel

somewhere inbetween. The law on employment protection, which is valid for all kinds of employees, is sometimes difficult to apply in research and development, if usual requirements on competence of researchers and quality of research shall be followed. The problem mainly lies in finding a proper demarcation line between general interests of the public and interests of special groups in education, thus between what is decided politically and what is agreed upon through negotiations. Hopefully, experiences will give methods and means to establish accepted procedures to balance different interests against each other. If not, there are risks that not only educational administration, but also educational research and development will be hampered.

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